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### Article

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# **Longitudinal Changes in Body Composition and Resting Metabolic Rate in Male Professional Flat Jockeys: Preliminary Outcomes and Implications for Future Research Directions.**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Jockeys are unique given that they make-weight daily and therefore often resort to fasting and  
3 dehydration. Through increasing daily food frequency (during energy deficit), we have  
4 reported short-term improvements in jockey's body composition. Whilst these changes were  
5 observed over 6 –12 weeks with food provided, it is unclear if such improvements can be  
6 maintained over an extended period during free-living conditions. We therefore assessed  
7 jockeys over 5 years using DXA, RMR & hydration measurements. Following dietary and  
8 exercise advice, jockeys reduced fat mass from baseline of  $7.1 \pm 1.4$  kg to  $6.1 \pm 0.7$  kg and  
9  $6.1 \pm 0.6$  kg ( $p < 0.001$ ) at years 1 and 5 respectively. Additionally fat free mass was  
10 maintained with RMR increasing significantly from  $1500 \pm 51$  kcal.day<sup>-1</sup> at baseline to  $1612 \pm$   
11  $95$  kcal.day<sup>-1</sup> &  $1620 \pm 92$  kcal.day<sup>-1</sup> ( $p < 0.001$ ) at years 1 and 5 respectively. Urine osmolality  
12 reduced from  $816 \pm 236$  mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup> at baseline to  $564 \pm 175$  mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup> &  $524 \pm 156$   
13 mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup> ( $p < 0.001$ ) at years 1 and 5, respectively. The percent of jockeys consuming a  
14 regular breakfast significantly increased from 48% at baseline to 83% ( $p = 0.009$ ) & 87% ( $p =$   
15  $0.003$ ) at years 1 and 5, alongside regular lunch from 35% to 92% ( $p < 0.001$ ) & 96% ( $p <$   
16  $0.001$ ) from baseline to years 1 and 5, respectively. In conclusion, we report that improved  
17 body composition can be maintained in free-living jockeys over a 5-year period when  
18 appropriate guidance has been provided.

19

20 ***Key words: Jockey, body composition, RMR, hydration, meal frequency***

## 21 INTRODUCTION

22 Professional jockeys are unique in weight restricted sports given that when race riding, they  
23 are required to make weight daily. Typically, this will require riding at different weights  
24 throughout the day since jockeys often have multiple rides which at certain meetings can be  
25 as many as 10 rides (O'Reilly et al., 2017). Unlike combat sports, jockeys are not afforded the  
26 opportunity to rehydrate after initial weight check (Burke et al., 2021) and must report the same  
27 weight or within 1 lb post-race of the pre-race weight (Wilson, Drust, et al., 2014) and therefore  
28 often compete in a dehydrated and under-fuelled condition. Within these unique  
29 circumstances, it has been well documented that jockeys may resort to prolonged fasting and  
30 severe dehydration to achieve the stipulated race weights (Caulfield & Karageorghis, 2008;  
31 Dolan et al., 2011; King & Mezey, 1987; Labadarios et al., 1993; O'Reilly et al., 2017; Wilson,  
32 Drust, et al., 2014); practices that appear culturally engrained within the sport (Martin et al.,  
33 2017).

34  
35 Over the past decade our research group and others have challenged this reliance on  
36 unhealthy practices and devised safer alternatives for jockeys aiming to maintain race weight.  
37 Indeed, in a 9-week case-study intervention of 30-min daily steady-state exercise (65 - 70%  
38 maximum heart rate) and targeted nutritional education consisting of high protein/high fibre  
39 foods consumed at multiple points throughout the day, whilst maintaining a daily energy deficit  
40 of 500 – 800 kcal.d<sup>-1</sup>, we reported a professional jump jockey reduced fat mass (FM) by 7.0  
41 kg (Wilson et al., 2012). This new diet contrasted with a typical jockeys' diet, which has been  
42 suggested to consist of one convenience snack before noon and a large meal comprising  
43 energy-dense foods of an evening with prolonged fasting between (Wilson et al., 2015). The  
44 revised diet and exercise plan resulted in the jockey being able to make minimum race weight  
45 in Great Britain (GB) jump racing (64.0 kg) for the first time without the need to resort to  
46 deleterious practices. Following this pilot work, further research on 10 British-based  
47 professional jockeys reported a mean loss of 2.5 kg body mass (BM) through adherence to  
48 the diet and exercise advice outlined in the initial pilot work. In this study meals and snacks

49 were provided to the jockeys to ensure adherence to the diet plan. This intervention was  
50 designed to illicit a 500 – 800 kcal<sup>-1</sup> daily energy deficit and formulated from measures of daily  
51 energy expenditure previously reported in professional jockeys (Wilson et al., 2013). Whilst  
52 FM significantly decreased, fat free mass (FFM) was maintained, with a significant increase  
53 in resting metabolic rate (RMR) and improved hydration status. The findings in this study are  
54 now the basis for 'best' nutritional recommendations for jockeys by stakeholders within the  
55 racing industry (Martin et al., 2017).

56

57 Whilst our previous findings suggest that short-term exercise and nutritional interventions to  
58 illicit a daily energy deficit can demonstrate positive changes in body composition, hydration  
59 and RMR in jockeys, it is also important to evaluate if these can be maintained over a longer  
60 period and in free-living conditions. The current study therefore assessed body composition,  
61 RMR, hydration and meal and snack frequency following the provision of dietary and exercise  
62 advice, to ascertain if the improvements observed in short-term studies can be maintained  
63 over an extended period than our previous work and during free-living conditions.

64

## 65 **METHODS**

### 66 **Participants**

67 Twenty-three male professional flat jockeys (age: 32 ± 7 years; stature: 165.0 ± 6.9 cm; BM:  
68 56.0 ± 2.9 kg) were recruited for the study. Criteria for inclusion were jockeys licensed to race  
69 ride in GB, who could attend the laboratory on more than one occasion for retests following  
70 baseline assessment. Although female jockeys did visit the laboratory for testing during the  
71 study period, no female jockey met the full inclusion criteria of returning to be re-assessed  
72 following baseline assessment, and therefore such data is not included. All male jockeys were  
73 injury free and race riding at the time of this study. Additionally, all jockeys were non-smokers  
74 and not known to be taking any medications.

75

76

## 77 **Study Design**

78 Assessments of body composition, RMR, hydration status and self-reported meal and snack  
79 frequency were collected over a 5-year period. Initial study design included jockeys to undergo  
80 retesting on an annual basis for the full study period and following their baseline assessment.  
81 During this time and due to COVID restrictions preventing annual testing at our laboratories,  
82 all jockey's data assessed is for those participants who returned throughout the study period  
83 for follow up on two additional occasions, with the second visit occurring once restrictions were  
84 removed (e.g., baseline = 0 – 12 months; follow up 1 (FU 1) = 13 – 24 months; and follow up  
85 2 (FU 2) = 46 – 60 months). Prior to initial testing, jockeys were given participant information  
86 and provided written informed consent as mandated by National Research Ethics Service  
87 approval (14/NW/0155).

88

## 89 **Experimental procedures**

90 On each testing visit and following a 12 hour overnight fast, jockeys provided a mid-flow urine  
91 sample for assessments of urine osmolality using a handheld refractometer (Osmocheck;  
92 Vitech Scientific, West Sussex, UK) (Sparks & Close, 2013). Jockeys then underwent  
93 measures of stature and BM using a dual scale and stadiometer (SECA 702 and 123 GmbH,  
94 Hamburg, Germany), whilst barefoot and wearing minimum undergarments. Jockeys then had  
95 whole body composition assessed via Dual X-Ray Absorptiometry (DXA-QDR Series  
96 Discovery, Horizon Hologic, Marlborough, USA) following best practice guidelines (Nana et  
97 al., 2016). Following a period of rest in a supine position for 5 minutes, jockeys participated in  
98 an RMR assessment via indirect calorimetry ( $RMR_{meas}$ ; GEM Nutrition, Daresbury, UK)  
99 calibrated via known concentrations of  $O_2/CO_2$  = an established respiratory exchange ratio of  
100 0.67 and utilising the same protocol as previously described (Wilson et al., 2015). Additionally,  
101 predicted RMR ( $RMR_{pred}$ ) (Cunningham, 1980) was established from DXA derived estimates  
102 of FFM. An RMR ratio ( $RMR_{ratio}$ ) was then calculated by dividing  $RMR_{meas}$ , by  $RMR_{pred}$ ,  
103 whereby values of  $<0.90$  were classified to define any instances of potential energy deficiency  
104 (Sterringer & Larson-Meyer, 2022).

105 Following these assessments, jockeys were individually interviewed by a Sport & Exercise  
106 Registered (SEnr) Nutritionist regarding their current weight-making strategies and completed  
107 a 24-hour meal and snack recall. From this self-reported information, meal and snack  
108 frequency was chronologically classified as breakfast, morning snack, lunch, evening snack,  
109 and dinner (see Figure 4). During the initial baseline interview, jockeys were given advice on  
110 the health and performance benefits of 1) eating regularly whilst still maintaining an energy  
111 deficit to control race riding body weight; 2) focusing on high protein and high fibre based  
112 foods to increase satiety (Martin et al., 2017) rather than a reliance upon convenience high  
113 sugar foods (Wilson et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 2013) and 3) maintaining hydration with regular  
114 fluid intake rather than intentional dehydration (Wilson, Drust, et al., 2014). All jockeys then  
115 received nutritional information in sheet format for 'best' weight-making practices (high  
116 fibre/high protein) and as described in our earlier work (Wilson et al., 2015). Jockeys were  
117 also advised to undertake 30 minutes of steady-state aerobic exercise daily, to increase  
118 energy expenditure as utilised successfully in our previous work in weight reduction for  
119 professional jockeys (Wilson et al., 2012; Wilson et al., 2015) and to help create a daily energy  
120 deficit. The dietary sheet information also included illustrated convenience foods to minimise.  
121 Additionally, a hydration chart was included for jockeys to self-assess urine colour as an  
122 indicator of hydration status. It was advised that optimal food consumption be every 3 hours,  
123 with (recommended) fluid consumption *ad-libitum*, as per previous research within  
124 professional jockeys (Wilson et al., 2012; Wilson et al., 2015) and combat sport athletes  
125 (Langan-Evans et al., 2021; Morton et al., 2010). All information was in lay-friendly language  
126 and the jockeys were afforded the opportunity to ask any questions on information that was  
127 not understood and/or related to this alternative approach.

128 Upon follow up, jockeys were re-interviewed by the same accredited nutritionist for 24-hour  
129 meal and snack frequency recall and were again provided with the original advice sheets and  
130 with the same daily exercise advice. For FU 1 and 2, jockeys were requested to return  
131 approximately the same time as during the initial visit (i.e., morning between 0900-1100 am).

132 For the baseline period of testing,  $n = 43$  male professional flat jockeys attended the  
133 laboratory, with  $n = 27$  returning for FU 1 (~63%) and  $n = 23$  (~54%) for FU 2. Those jockeys  
134 who did not return on one or both occasions were contacted via telephone and/or text  
135 message regarding discontinuing the study. Responses were confined to five categories;  
136 retired, happy (with current dietary practices), unhappy (with suggested practices from the  
137 study), financial, and unknown. (Figure 1).

### 138 **Statistical analyses**

139 Data for those participants who attended all 3 visits to the laboratory were analysed for  
140 potential differences in body composition (i.e., BM, FFM, FM, body fat percentage), hydration  
141 status (urine osmolality),  $RMR_{meas}/RMR_{pred}$  and number of main meals and snacks between  
142 baseline, FU 1 and FU 2. All analyses were conducted in Statistical Package for the Social  
143 Sciences (SPSS® version 28; IBM®, SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, USA). Descriptive statistics  
144 inclusive of mean  $\pm$  SD, 95 % confidence intervals (95 % CI) and frequency are provided for  
145 all data where appropriate, with the alpha level of significance established at  $p < 0.05$ . Ratio  
146 data were initially examined for normality and outliers utilising histograms, boxplots and  
147 Shapiro-Wilks tests. Parametric one-way within subject repeated measures ANOVAs with  
148 sphericity assessed via the Mauchly test and non-parametric Friedman's tests were utilised  
149 for normally and non-normally distributed data, respectively. During any relevant post hoc  
150 analysis, Bonferroni corrections were employed for multiple pairwise comparisons.  
151 Additionally, partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ ) effect sizes were also calculated utilising the following  
152 quantitative criteria to explain the practical significance of the findings: trivial  $<0.2$ , small 0.21–  
153 0.6, moderate 0.61–1.2, large 1.21–1.99, and very large  $\geq 2.0$  (Hopkins et al., 2009). Given the  
154 ordinal nature of the meal and snack frequency data, Cochran's Q tests were performed to  
155 determine if the percentage of participant responses differed across visits. Sample size was  
156 adequate to use the  $\chi^2$  distribution approximation and pairwise comparisons were performed  
157 using Dunn's procedure with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons presented as  
158 adjusted  $p$  values.



159 **RESULTS**

160 Body composition and hydration status of GB-based professional flat jockeys can be seen in  
 161 Figure 2. There was a *small* difference in total BM between testing visits (Figure 2A;  $p < 0.001$ ;  
 162  $\eta^2 = 0.54$ ), with FU 1 ( $54.8 \pm 2.5$  kg;  $p < 0.001$ ; 95% CI = 0.7 to 1.6 kg) and FU 2 ( $54.9 \pm 2.5$   
 163 kg;  $p < 0.001$ ; 95% CI = 0.7 to 1.5 kg) both  $1.1 \pm 0.2$  and  $1.0 \pm 0.2$  kg lower than baseline ( $55.9$   
 164  $\pm 2.9$  kg) respectively, with no differences between follow up visits ( $0.1 \pm 0.1$  kg;  $p = 0.63$ ; 95%  
 165 CI = -0.2 to 0.1 kg). Figure 2B highlights there were no differences in FFM ( $0.1 \pm 0.1$  kg;  $p =$   
 166  $0.48$ ;  $\eta^2 = 0.03$ ) between baseline ( $45.5 \pm 2.3$  kg), FU 1 ( $45.4 \pm 2.3$  kg) and FU 2 ( $45.4 \pm 2.2$   
 167 kg). However, changes in FM also exhibited a *small* difference between testing visits (Figure  
 168 2C;  $p < 0.001$ ;  $\eta^2 = 0.54$ ), with FU 1 ( $6.1 \pm 0.6$  kg;  $p < 0.001$ ; 95% CI = 0.6 to 1.5 kg) and FU  
 169 2 ( $6.1 \pm 0.5$  kg;  $p < 0.001$ ; 95% CI = 0.5 to 1.4 kg) both  $1.0 \pm 0.7$  kg lower than baseline ( $7.1$   
 170  $\pm 1.4$  kg), with no differences between follow up visits ( $0.1 \pm 0.1$  kg;  $p = 0.34$ ; 95% CI = -0.2 to  
 171 0.1 kg). These outcomes resulted in a *small* difference across body fat percentages (Figure  
 172 2D;  $p < 0.001$ ;  $\eta^2 = 0.44$ ), whereby baseline ( $12.8 \pm 2.3\%$ ) is  $1.0 \pm 0.8\%$  higher than both FU  
 173 1 ( $11.8 \pm 1.5\%$ ;  $p = 0.001$ ; 95% CI = 0.5 to 1.5%) and FU 2 ( $11.8 \pm 1.5\%$ ;  $p = 0.001$ ; 95% CI  
 174 = 0.5 to 1.6%), with no differences between follow up visits ( $0.1 \pm 0.1\%$ ;  $p = 0.63$ ; 95% CI = -  
 175 0.2 to 0.3%). Urine osmolality was also higher by a *small* difference (Figure 2E;  $p < 0.001$ ;  $\eta^2$   
 176 = 0.56) at baseline ( $816 \pm 236$  mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup>) in comparison to both FU 1 ( $564 \pm 175$  mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup>;  
 177  $p < 0.001$ ; 95% CI = 159 to 344 mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup>) and FU 2 ( $524 \pm 156$  mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup>;  $p < 0.001$ ;  
 178 95% CI = 194 to 388 mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup>) by  $252 \pm 62$  and  $291 \pm 80$  mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup> respectively, yet also  
 179 with no differences between follow up visits ( $40 \pm 18$  mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup>;  $p = 0.26$ ; 95% CI = -32 to  
 180 111 mOsmol.L<sup>-1</sup>).

181

182 Figure 3 highlights a comparison of  $RMR_{meas}$ ,  $RMR_{pred}$  and  $RMR_{ratio}$  of GB-based professional  
 183 flat jockeys, demonstrating no differences in  $RMR_{pred}$  ( $2.0 \pm 2.0$  kcal.day<sup>-1</sup>;  $p = 0.49$ ;  $\eta^2 = 0.03$ )  
 184 between baseline ( $1500 \pm 51$  kcal.day<sup>-1</sup>), FU 1 ( $1499 \pm 49$  kcal.day<sup>-1</sup>) and FU 2 ( $1498 \pm 50$   
 185 kcal.day<sup>-1</sup>). However, there were *moderate* differences between testing visits in  $RMR_{meas}$  ( $p <$   
 186  $0.001$ ;  $\eta^2 = 0.72$ ) whereby FU 1 ( $1612 \pm 95$  kcal.day<sup>-1</sup>;  $p < 0.001$ ; 95% CI = 69 to 123 kcal.day<sup>-1</sup>

187 <sup>1</sup>) and FU 2 ( $1620 \pm 92 \text{ kcal.day}^{-1}$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ; 95% CI = 77 to 132  $\text{kcal.day}^{-1}$ ) were both  $96 \pm$   
188  $12$  and  $104 \pm 14 \text{ kcal.day}^{-1}$  higher than baseline ( $1516 \pm 106 \text{ kcal.day}^{-1}$ ), with no differences  
189 between follow up visits ( $8 \pm 2 \text{ kcal.day}^{-1}$ ;  $p = 0.06$ ; 95% CI = -1 to 17  $\text{kcal.day}^{-1}$ ). This results  
190 in an increase in  $\text{RMR}_{\text{ratio}}$  from baseline to a consistent value across FU 1 and 2.

191

192 Following initial and subsequent 24-hour meal and snack recalls, self-reported main meal and  
193 snack frequencies categorised as all intakes consumed within a day, differed between  
194 baseline and both follow up visits (2 intakes vs 4 intakes per day, respectively), but not  
195 between follow ups. Figure 4 highlights the frequency of each main meal and snack intake  
196 across all visits. The percentage of jockeys who consumed breakfast was different between  
197 visits  $\chi^2(2) = 13.273$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , with an increase of 82.6% at FU 1 ( $p = 0.009$ ) and 87.0% at  
198 FU 2 ( $p = 0.003$ ) when compared to 47.8% at baseline. Additionally, the percentage of jockeys  
199 who consumed lunch was also different between visits  $\chi^2(2) = 21.529$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , with an  
200 increase of 91.3% at FU 1 ( $p < 0.001$ ) and 95.7% at FU 2 ( $p < 0.001$ ) when compared to 34.8%  
201 at baseline. However, there were no differences between visits for the percentage of jockeys  
202 who consumed dinner (all;  $p = 1.00$ ). Finally, there were differences in the percentage of  
203 jockeys who consumed an evening snack across visits  $\chi^2(2) = 11.231$ ,  $p = 0.004$ , with an  
204 increase of 39.1% at FU 1 ( $p = 0.02$ ) and 43.5% at FU 2 ( $p = 0.007$ ), when compared to 4.3%  
205 at baseline. Nonetheless and despite an increase of 52.2% and 56.5% at FU 1 and 2 when  
206 compared to 30.4% at baseline, there were no significant differences for jockeys who  
207 consumed a morning snack across visits ( $p = 0.16$ ).

208

## 209 **DISCUSSION**

210 The aim of the present study was to assess if dietary changes that have reported positive  
211 results in acute studies are maintainable over an extended period in free-living jockeys. To  
212 this end, we recruited 23 male GB-based professional flat jockeys and assessed physiological  
213 markers relative to weight-making on three separate occasions over the course of 5 years.  
214 We provide novel findings within a jockey population with longitudinal positive changes in BM

215 and body composition, increased RMR, decreased urine osmolality and increased meal and  
216 snack frequency following an initial assessment and the provision of 'best' weight-making  
217 nutritional and daily steady-state aerobic exercise education. These data suggest that jockeys  
218 can maintain beneficial changes for weight-making during free-living conditions and beyond  
219 initial re-assessment.

220

221 The current study reports an initial reduction in FM without any loss of FFM from baseline to  
222 follow up testing, with a maintenance of these improved markers at both 1 and 5 years post-  
223 initial testing. Importantly, measures were conducted with no additional interaction with  
224 researchers outside of the baseline and follow up measures, thereby placing the responsibility  
225 on the individual jockey to control FM and FFM. Previously, we have reported the positive  
226 benefits of reducing FM in jockeys to negate the need to dehydrate and maintaining FFM  
227 whilst consuming a hypocaloric diet that can result in improved physicality, and potentially, for  
228 injury prevention (Pasiakos et al., 2013). Given the occupational risks associated with the  
229 sport in that racehorses can reach peak speeds of  $>70 \text{ km}\cdot\text{hr}^{-1}$  (Turner et al., 2002), and  
230 considering that as little as 2% reduction in BM through rapid weight loss can significantly  
231 compromise a jockey's strength (Wilson, Hawken, et al., 2014), the findings here appear  
232 relevant to jockey safety in competition.

233

234 In addition to the importance of maintaining FFM whilst in an energy deficit for performance  
235 and injury prevention as discussed, it is also important to note that FFM is well-established as  
236 a major determinant of RMR (Müller et al., 2002; Zurlo et al., 1990) given it negates the  
237 influences of age, gender, body weight and body fat upon RMR (Fontaine et al., 1985). Here,  
238 we report a significantly increased  $\text{RMR}_{\text{meas}}$  from initial testing to both follow up visits of  $\sim 100$   
239  $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ , and independent of changes to FFM. Moreover, no difference in  $\text{RMR}_{\text{pred}}$  between  
240 baseline and subsequent follow ups were observed further highlighting the positive change in  
241  $\text{RMR}_{\text{meas}}$ . Additionally,  $\text{RMR}_{\text{ratio}}$  was established by the division of  $\text{RMR}_{\text{meas}}$  and  $\text{RMR}_{\text{pred}}$  and  
242 where values of  $<0.90$  indicate potential energy deficiency (Torstveit et al., 2018). Values for

243 RMR<sub>ratio</sub> reported an increase from baseline, whereby three jockeys were classed as being  
244 energy deficient, to a consistent value across FU 1 and 2 and no jockeys being classed as  
245 energy deficient.

246

247 In explaining potential reasons for the increased RMR<sub>meas</sub> reported here, this may have  
248 occurred due to the advised addition of daily aerobic exercise. Indeed, modulations of RMR  
249 due to increased physical activity and independent of changes to FFM tissues, have been  
250 attributed to enhanced cellular respiration, heightened energy flux, augmented protein  
251 turnover and increased activity of the sympathetic nervous system (Speakman & Selman,  
252 2003; Stiegler & Cunliffe, 2006). The findings here agree with the increased RMR<sub>meas</sub> reported  
253 from our previous dietary intervention comprising 3 meals and 2 snacks per day and an  
254 increase in daily exercise energy expenditure (Wilson et al., 2015). Furthermore, this study  
255 also followed the same format of advised nutritional options and increasing meal and snack  
256 frequency and daily exercise as our case study, where a jockey reduced FM by 7.0 kg in a 9-  
257 week period.

258

259 Whereas increased meal and snack frequency and positive changes in body composition are  
260 still a topic of debate in humans *per se*, interestingly, there does appear evidence of benefits  
261 for athletic populations particularly (La Bounty et al., 2011). In the limited studies to date,  
262 Bernadot et al, (2005) reported significantly greater body fat percentage loss (<1.03%) and  
263 increased FFM (>1.2 kg) for college athletes consuming 250 kcal snacks after main meals for  
264 2 weeks, versus athletes consuming a non-caloric placebo. Interestingly, these positive  
265 changes in body composition reverted to baseline within 4 weeks of the 250 kcal snacks being  
266 removed (Benardot et al., 2005). In earlier work, Iwao and colleagues (1996) reported boxers  
267 (n = 6) consuming a hypercaloric diet of 1200 kcal per day as 6 feeds, experienced less loss  
268 of FFM versus boxers (n = 6) consuming the same energy intake across 2 meals. Whilst there  
269 was no significant difference in BM between groups, the boxers eating less frequently reported  
270 higher measures of urinary 3-methylhistidine/creatinine and the authors cite this as evidence

271 of greater myoprotein catabolism even when the same diet is consumed (Iwao et al., 1996).  
272 In our own previous work where jockeys were prescribed a hypocaloric diet consumed as 5  
273 feeds and evenly spaced throughout the day, we report a maintenance of FFM over 6 weeks,  
274 which may therefore highlight the importance of increasing meal and snack frequency for  
275 muscle protein synthesis in the presence of a daily energy deficit. Whilst the actual  
276 mechanisms behind the maintenance of FFM reported in the present study are unknown,  
277 nonetheless, the present data clearly show that jockeys were able to make positive changes  
278 in body composition that are maintained over a 5-year period without routine assessments in  
279 free-living conditions.

280

281 Initial findings here demonstrated that the jockeys were typically dehydrated at baseline, with  
282 mean urine osmolality of >700 mOsmol (Sawka et al., 2005). Dehydration is a common  
283 practice used by jockeys to make racing weight and typically through rapid weight loss  
284 achieved by exercising in a sweat suit and heavy clothing (Dolan et al., 2011; O'Reilly et al.,  
285 2017; Wilson, Hawken, et al., 2014). Simulated riding performance (Wilson, Hawken, et al.,  
286 2014) and cycle ergometer (Dolan et al., 2013) have both been shown to be impaired in jockeys  
287 following 2 and 4% dehydration, respectively. Given that jockeys have been reported to reduce  
288 BM through intentional sweating of up to 7% through rapid weight loss on a race day (Wilson  
289 et al., 2012), the performance detriments in competition may be magnified. Previous work has  
290 also highlighted the potential for increasing the occupational hazards associated with riding  
291 racehorses at high speeds and over obstacles (Turner et al., 2002) through reduced strength  
292 when dehydrated (Dolan et al., 2013). Importantly, the current study reports that from initial  
293 'dehydrated' classification at baseline, most of those jockeys returning for retests did so in a  
294 hydrated state, following the provision of 'healthier' dietary advice. Whilst accepting this finding  
295 was established in a laboratory setting and not at the racecourse, it still provides positive proof  
296 for jockeys that they are able to reduce BM and maintain this lower weight and do so whilst  
297 being hydrated.

298

299 Whilst the present study provides novel findings that jockeys improve body composition,  
300  $RMR_{meas}$ , hydration status, and increase meal and snack frequency following the provision of  
301 dietary and exercise advice, it is not devoid of limitations. Notably, this study did not control  
302 dietary intake or the recommended daily exercise advice modality, and therefore we do not  
303 know if indeed jockeys were in a daily energy deficit? However, given that a key aim of the  
304 study was to assess jockeys in free-living conditions, and to maintain ecological validity, we  
305 therefore employed a 24-hour meal and snack frequency recall as a tool to assess the  
306 frequency of food intake specifically, and as not to be constrained by food diaries and/or 'snap  
307 and send'. Moreover, whereas the usefulness of 24-hour recall as an accurate assessment of  
308 energy intake in athletes appears particularly limited against measures of doubly labelled  
309 water (Foster et al., 2019) or when compared with 24-hour portable metabolic monitor data in  
310 jockeys (O'Loughlin et al., 2013), it is reported as a reliable method that correlates positively  
311 with meal and snack frequency in self-reported diaries over longer periods and habitual eating  
312 behaviour in athletes (Sunami et al., 2016). Likewise, to maintain the jockey's independence,  
313 we only requested that the jockeys provide verbal feedback regarding adherence to the  
314 recommended daily exercise, and which collectively we can summarise that the jockeys did  
315 confirm on both follow up occasions. Another notable limitation is the group of jockeys who  
316 did not return for follow up testing after baseline. However, whilst only 23 of the initial cohort  
317 ( $n = 43$ ) did complete the study, this is representative of 54% of the initial total group and  
318 therefore it may be viewed that the majority felt it important to return on more than one  
319 occasion for retesting. Indeed, in accounting for the non-returning jockeys, the main reason  
320 reported to the researchers was being 'happy' ( $n = 7$ ) with their current weight-making  
321 practices and that the advice provided had had a positive effect in helping those jockeys make  
322 and maintain race riding weight (Figure 1). For the smaller number of 'unhappy' jockeys ( $n =$   
323 2), it was communicated that they did report finding it difficult to maintain the regime, although  
324 no (potentially) confounding factors were discussed or explored. As such, it may therefore be  
325 that those jockeys may have reverted to previous practices for weight-making and, in the likely  
326 event, we fully acknowledge that such recommendations as proposed in this study may not

327 be suited to all jockeys without further exploration into any confounding factors that may act  
328 as a barrier.

329

330 To conclude, the findings of the present study demonstrate that professional jockeys may  
331 improve body composition, RMR, hydration and eat more regularly following provision of  
332 educational advice and resources. These improvements were maintained over an extended  
333 period and in free-living conditions and suggest that jockeys may be positively influenced by  
334 targeted nutritional and exercise education. Given the main limitations highlighted, we would  
335 therefore suggest that future similar research include minimum assessments of energy intake  
336 and energy output to ascertain 'typical' daily energy balance, that could still maintain ecological  
337 validity in free-living athletes. This may then help to further strengthen any similar positive  
338 findings from such studies, as to the positive changes reported here. Additionally, further  
339 exploration into reasons that jockeys 'drop out' may act to enhance future work and perhaps  
340 help remove barriers to adherence, that again, may further benefit jockeys and the sport of  
341 horseracing long-term.

342

#### 343 **AUTHORSHIP**

344 **GW** undertook all laboratory measurements. **CLE** undertook metabolic analysis, figure design,  
345 statistical analysis and manuscript review. **DM** undertook behavioural analysis and overall  
346 manuscript review. **AK** assisted with figure design, manuscript design and manuscript review,  
347 **JPM** contributed to manuscript design and manuscript review. **GLC** oversaw dietary recall,  
348 contributed to figure design, manuscript design and manuscript review.

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